

Q.1 (a) Define (1) Equilibrium (2) Cross elasticity (3) Price elasticity

1. Equilibrium

Equilibrium is a situation in the market where **the quantity demanded by consumers becomes exactly equal to the quantity supplied by producers** at a particular price. At the equilibrium point:

- The **market price becomes stable** because buyers and sellers agree on the price.
 - There is **no excess demand** (shortage) and **no excess supply** (surplus).
 - Both buyers and sellers are satisfied, so there is **no pressure for price to change**. Thus, equilibrium represents the **balance point** of the market where everything is steady.
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2. Cross Elasticity of Demand

Cross elasticity of demand refers to the **degree of responsiveness of the quantity demanded of one good (Good A)** when there is a **change in the price of another related good (Good B)**.

It helps to understand the relationship between two goods:

- If cross elasticity is **positive**, the goods are **substitutes** (example: tea and coffee — if tea price increases, demand for coffee increases).
 - If cross elasticity is **negative**, the goods are **complements** (example: car and petrol — if petrol price increases, demand for cars decreases).
 - If cross elasticity is **zero**, the goods are **unrelated** (example: shoes and sugar). Cross elasticity helps firms and economists understand **market relationships** and make better pricing decisions.
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3. Price Elasticity of Demand

Price elasticity of demand measures **how much the quantity demanded of a product changes** when its **own price changes**, while all other factors remain constant.

It shows how sensitive consumers are to price changes:

- If a small change in price leads to a **large change in quantity demanded**, demand is **elastic**.
- If a change in price leads to **little or no change in quantity demanded**, demand is **inelastic**.

Price elasticity helps businesses in making pricing decisions, estimating revenue, and understanding consumer behaviour.

For example, luxury goods have high elasticity, while basic necessities like salt have low elasticity.

(b) Give the definition and scope of economics in engineering.

Definition of Economics in Engineering

Economics in engineering refers to the **application of economic principles, theories, and methods** to make better decisions in **engineering projects, production, design, manufacturing, and resource allocation**.

It helps engineers choose the **most cost-effective, profitable, and efficient** option among different technical alternatives.

In simple words, it is the study of **how engineers use limited resources (money, materials, time, manpower)** to get the **maximum output at minimum cost**.

Scope of Economics in Engineering

The scope explains the **areas where economic principles are used in engineering decision-making**.

Below are the major points, explained in a simple, clear way.

1. Cost Analysis

Engineers analyze **cost of materials, machinery, labour, production, and maintenance**. This helps in controlling expenses and selecting the most economical method.

2. Project Evaluation

Economics helps in deciding whether a project is **profitable or not**.

Engineers use tools like **cost–benefit analysis, break-even analysis, ROI, NPV, IRR** to evaluate projects.

3. Choice Between Alternatives

Engineers often face different options (ex: two machines, two designs, two materials). Economics helps in choosing the **best and lowest-cost option** without affecting quality.

4. Budgeting and Financial Planning

Engineering economics helps in preparing **budgets, estimating costs, forecasting cash flow**, and planning financial needs of projects.

5. Resource Allocation

Resources like **manpower, energy, raw materials, time, and capital** are limited. Economics helps engineers use these resources **efficiently** to reduce waste.

6. Production and Operations Decisions

Companies use economic principles to decide:

- Optimum production level
- Process selection
- Plant layout
- Scheduling
- Inventory control

These decisions help reduce cost and increase output.

7. Replacement and Maintenance Analysis

Economics helps in deciding the **right time to replace old machines** with new ones by comparing repair cost and new machine cost.

8. Pricing of Engineering Products

Economics helps determine the **best selling price** of a product by studying cost, demand, competition, and profit margin.

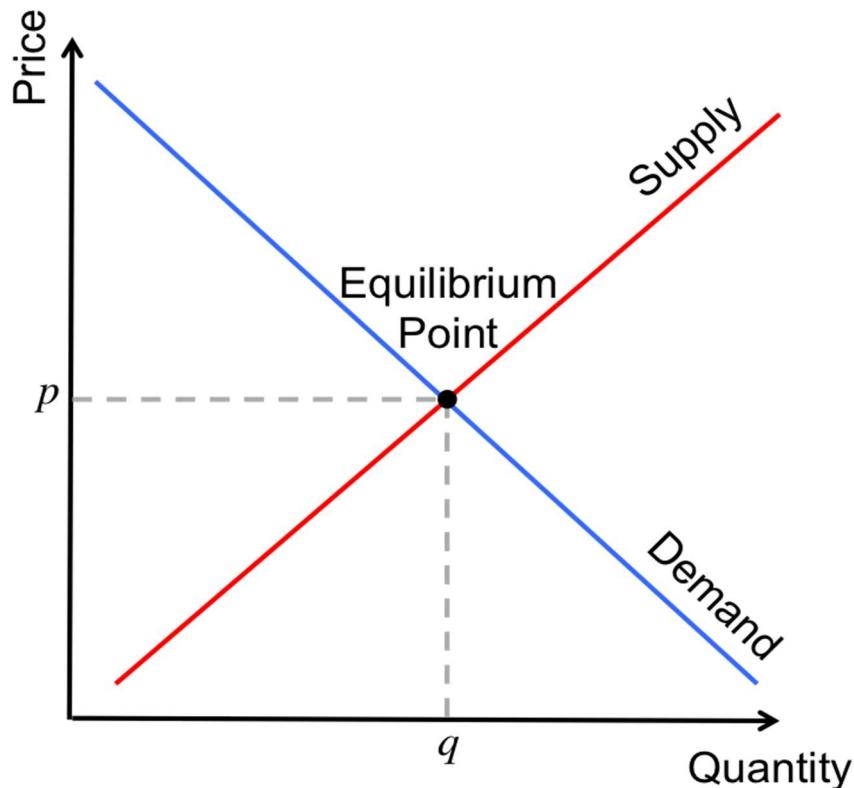
9. Environmental and Safety Decisions

Engineers use economics to choose environmentally friendly and safe options that are also cost-effective.

10. Risk and Uncertainty Analysis

Engineering projects have risks (market changes, material costs, failures).
Economics helps managers predict and reduce these risks.

(c) Explain theory of demand and supply with suitable diagram.



1. Theory of Demand

The **demand** for a product refers to the **quantity of a good that consumers are willing and able to buy** at different prices during a given time period.

According to the **Law of Demand**,

“When price falls, demand rises; and when price rises, demand falls, other things remaining constant.”

This is why the **demand curve slopes downward** from left to right.
In the diagram, the blue line shows the **Demand Curve (D)**.

Reasons why demand curve slopes downward:

- Income effect
- Substitution effect
- Diminishing marginal utility
- More buyers at lower prices

2. Theory of Supply

Supply refers to the **quantity of a product that producers are willing to sell** at different prices during a specific period.

According to the **Law of Supply**,

“When price increases, supply also increases; when price decreases, supply decreases, other things being constant.”

This is why the **supply curve slopes upward** from left to right.

In the diagram, the red line shows the **Supply Curve (S)**.

Reasons for upward supply curve:

- Higher profit at higher price
 - More firms entering the market
 - Covering higher marginal cost
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3. Market Equilibrium

Market equilibrium occurs where **Demand = Supply**.

This is shown by the **point where both curves intersect** in the diagram.

At this point:

- The market determines an **equilibrium price (Pe)**
- The market determines an **equilibrium quantity (Qe)**
- There is **no shortage, no surplus**

Meaning of equilibrium:

- Buyers are satisfied because they pay the market price
 - Sellers are satisfied because they get a fair return
 - Market forces are balanced
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4. Interpretation of the Diagram

- ✓ **Demand curve (blue)** slopes downward
- ✓ **Supply curve (red)** slopes upward
- ✓ They intersect at a point (black dot) showing **equilibrium**
- ✓ **Dashed horizontal line** = Equilibrium price
- ✓ **Dashed vertical line** = Equilibrium quantity

Q.2 (a) Define (1) Opportunity Cost (2) Sunk Cost (3) Margin of Safety

(1) Opportunity Cost – Definition

Opportunity Cost refers to the **value of the next best alternative that is sacrificed** when a decision is made to use resources in a particular way.

Explanation in simple words:

- When you choose one option, you lose the benefit of another option.
- That **lost benefit** is called opportunity cost.
- It helps in making rational economic decisions.

Example:

If a student spends time studying instead of working at a part-time job, the **income forgone** is the opportunity cost.

(2) Sunk Cost – Definition

Sunk Cost refers to a cost that has **already been incurred in the past and cannot be recovered or changed**, regardless of future decisions.

Explanation in simple words:

- Money already spent and cannot be taken back.
- It should **not** affect current or future business decisions.
- Managers should ignore sunk costs when planning.

Example:

Money spent on advertising, machinery already purchased, or research expenses already paid are sunk costs.

(3) Margin of Safety – Definition

Margin of Safety (MOS) is the **difference between actual (or expected) sales and break-even sales**.

It shows how much sales can fall before the business reaches the break-even point (no profit, no loss).

Explanation in simple words:

- It tells how safe the business is from losses.
- Higher MOS = Lower risk
- Lower MOS = High risk of loss

Formula:

$$\text{Margin of Safety} = \text{Actual Sales} - \text{Break-even Sales}$$

Example:

If actual sales = ₹5,00,000

Break-even sales = ₹3,50,000

MOS = ₹1,50,000

Margin of Safety Formula

$$\text{Margin} = \frac{\text{Current Sales Level} - \text{Breakeven Point}}{\text{Current Sales Level}} \times 100$$

(b) Explain the importance of the subject Principles of Economics and Management as part of B. E. study

(b) Importance of the subject “Principles of Economics and Management” as part of B.E. study

The subject **Principles of Economics and Management** is included in the engineering curriculum because modern engineers are not only technical problem-solvers but also future managers, entrepreneurs, project leaders and decision-makers. Understanding economics and management helps engineers work efficiently in industries, manage resources, reduce costs, and take better decisions.

Engineering projects involve production, costs, materials, manpower, budgeting, planning and coordination. Therefore, knowledge of economics and management makes an engineer more effective and industry-ready.

1. Helps in Efficient Resource Utilization

Engineers frequently deal with **limited resources** like materials, labour, machines and capital.

Economics teaches:

- How to allocate scarce resources
 - How to minimize waste
 - How to maximize output
- Management teaches:
- How to plan, organize and control resources
Thus engineers can complete projects efficiently.

2. Improves Decision Making

Economics provides tools like:

- Cost–benefit analysis
- Opportunity cost
- Demand and supply analysis

Management provides:

- Planning
- Forecasting
- Scientific decision-making techniques

These help engineers make **rational and profitable decisions** in real-life situations.

3. Understanding Costs, Pricing and Budgeting

Engineering decisions often depend on the **cost** of materials, machines, labour and processes.
The subject teaches:

- Cost estimation
- Break-even analysis
- Profit planning
- Budget preparation

This helps engineers design products that are **cost-effective and competitive**.

4. Makes Engineers Industry-Ready

Industries expect engineers to understand:

- Production processes
- Quality management
- Financial considerations
- Organizational structure

Economics & management give engineers the ability to work smoothly within an organisation and understand how companies function.

5. Helps in Project Planning and Control

Engineering projects need:

- Time scheduling
- Resource allocation
- Monitoring
- Controlling

Management principles like PERT, CPM, and project management techniques help engineers complete projects **on time and within budget**.

6. Develops Leadership and Team Skills

Management teaches engineers:

- Leadership qualities
- Motivation techniques
- Communication skills
- Team coordination

These skills are essential when engineers work in teams or supervise workers.

7. Encourages Entrepreneurship

Many engineers want to start their own business.

Economics provides:

- Understanding of market behaviour, demand and supply
- Pricing strategies
- Competition and cost structures

Management provides:

- Organizational planning
- Financial management
- Marketing and HR skills

Together, they help engineers become successful entrepreneurs.

8. Helps in Understanding Market and Economic Environment

Engineers must work in a business environment affected by:

- Inflation
- Interest rates
- Government policies
- Global competition

Economics helps engineers understand these factors and design better strategies for production and pricing.

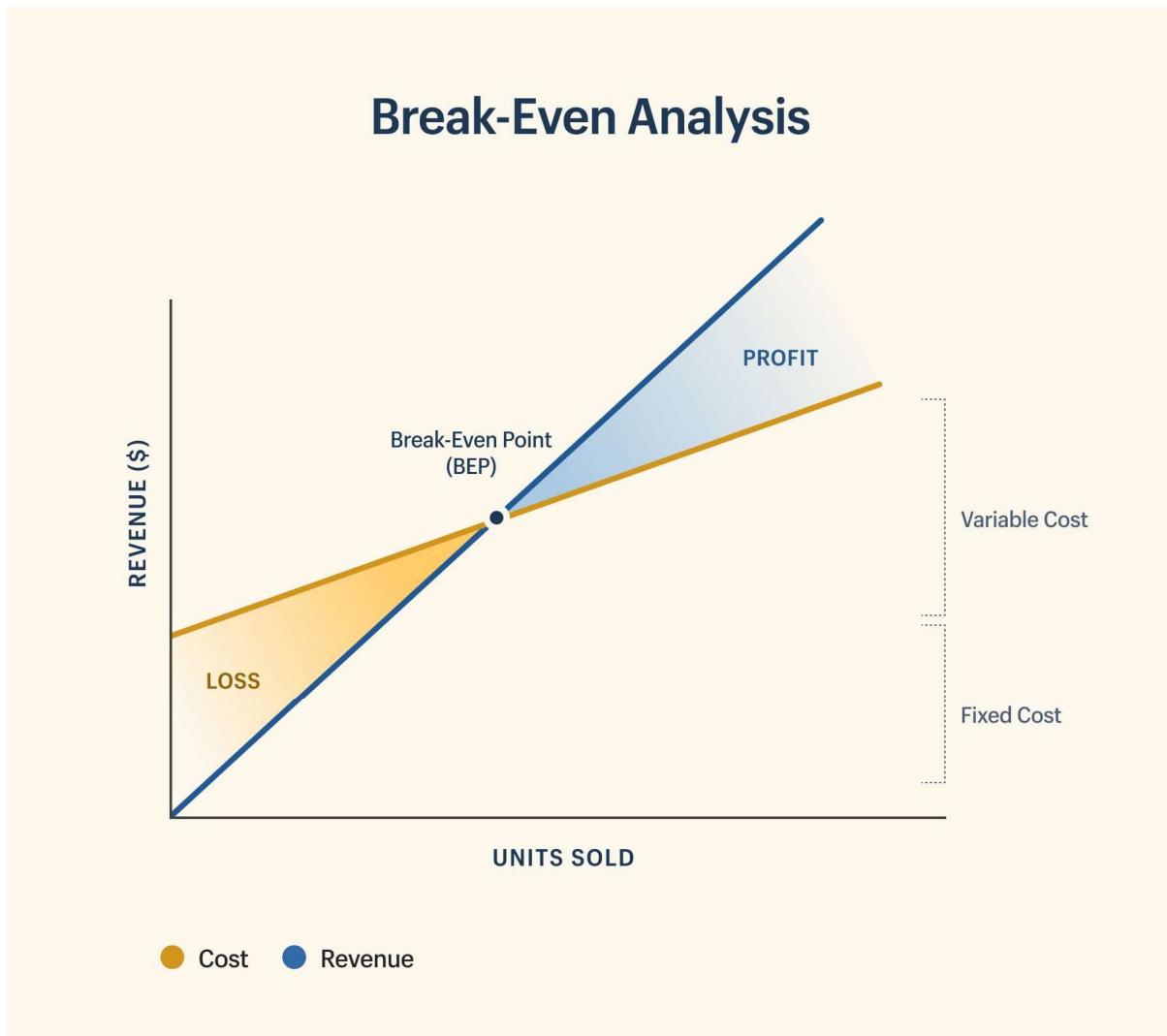
9. Enhances Productivity and Quality

Management subjects emphasize:

- Scientific management
- Work study
- Quality control
- Time and motion study

These techniques help engineers increase **productivity, efficiency and quality** in industries.

(c) Explain break even analysis in detail.



Break-even analysis is an important tool in economics and managerial decision-making. It helps a business understand the level of production or sales at which it neither makes a profit nor incurs a loss. This point is called the **Break-even Point (BEP)**. At BEP, the total revenue earned from selling products is exactly equal to the total cost of producing them.

1. Meaning of Break-even Analysis

Break-even analysis is a technique used to determine the relationship between **cost**, **revenue**, and **profit** at different levels of production.

It helps the business find out the minimum quantity it must sell to cover all its costs. Beyond the break-even point, the firm starts earning **profit**, and below the break-even point, it suffers **losses**.

2. Components Required for Break-even Analysis

To calculate and understand BEP, we need three key concepts:

(a) Fixed Costs

These costs do not change with the level of output.

Examples: rent, salaries, insurance, machinery depreciation.

(b) Variable Costs

These costs change directly with the level of production.

Examples: raw materials, electricity per unit, wages based on output.

(c) Selling Price per Unit

The price at which each product is sold.

3. Formula for Break-even Point

BREAK EVEN POINT CALCULATION

$$\text{Break Even Point (BEP)} = \frac{\text{Fixed Costs}}{\text{Selling Price per Unit} - \text{Variable Costs per Unit}}$$

4. Break-even Chart (Explanation)

A break-even chart is a graphical representation of:

- Total cost line
- Total revenue line
- Break-even point (where both lines meet)
- Profit region
- Loss region

Interpretation of the chart:

- The **Total Cost Line** starts above zero because it includes fixed cost.
- The **Total Revenue Line** starts from zero and increases with quantity sold.

- The point where these two lines intersect is the **Break-even Point**.
- To the right of BEP → **Profit Area**
- To the left of BEP → **Loss Area**

This chart helps managers visually understand how changes in cost, price or output affect profit.

5. Example of Break-even Analysis

Suppose a company manufactures notebooks.

- Fixed Cost = ₹50,000
- Selling Price per unit = ₹50
- Variable Cost per unit = ₹30

Contribution per unit:

$$50 - 30 = ₹20$$

Break-even Point (units):

$$BEP = 50,000 / 20 = 2500 \text{ units}$$

This means the firm must sell **2500 notebooks** to cover all its costs. After selling more than 2500 units, it will start earning profit.

6. Importance of Break-even Analysis

Break-even analysis is widely used because it helps management make several important decisions:

(i) Pricing Decisions

Helps determine the minimum price to avoid losses.

(ii) Profit Planning

Shows how many units must be sold to reach desired profit.

(iii) Cost Control

Identifies the impact of fixed and variable costs on profitability.

(iv) Production Planning

Helps decide the level of production that will be safe and profitable.

(v) Financial Planning

Useful for budgeting and forecasting.

(vi) Decision on Expansion

If new machines or labour increase fixed costs, BEP analysis shows whether expansion is profitable.

7. Limitations of Break-even Analysis

Although useful, break-even analysis has some limitations:

- Assumes fixed cost remains constant, which may not always be true.
- Assumes selling price per unit is constant.
- Assumes everything produced is sold, which may not happen.
- Useful mainly for short-term decisions.

(c) Discuss characteristics of Perfect Competition and Monopoly markets.

Markets can be of different types depending on the number of sellers, nature of products, and control over price. Two extreme market forms are **Perfect Competition** and **Monopoly**. They are completely opposite to each other. Below are their characteristics in simple and detailed form.

1. Characteristics of Perfect Competition

Perfect competition is a market structure where **a very large number of small buyers and sellers** exist, and no single seller can influence the price. Everything is controlled by **market demand and supply**.

(1) Large Number of Buyers and Sellers

- There are so many buyers and sellers that each firm is very small compared to the entire market.
- No single seller has any power to change the market price.

(2) Homogeneous (Identical) Products

- All firms sell the **same type of product**, with the same quality and features.
- Example: wheat, rice, cotton.
- Because products are identical, buyers do not prefer one seller over another.

(3) Price Taker Market

- Firms in perfect competition do not set the price.
- Market price is decided by **overall demand and supply**.
- Each firm only accepts the market price (price taker).

(4) Free Entry and Exit of Firms

- New firms can easily enter the market if they see profit.
- Firms can also leave easily if they incur losses.
- This keeps profit normal in the long run.

(5) Perfect Knowledge

- Buyers and sellers know everything about market prices, product quality, and available alternatives.
- This prevents firms from charging higher prices.

(6) Perfect Mobility of Factors

- Labour, capital, and resources can easily move from one firm to another.
- This ensures efficient use of resources.

(7) No Advertisement Needed

- Since products are identical, firms do not need to advertise to attract buyers.
 - This saves cost and keeps prices low.
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2. Characteristics of Monopoly

A monopoly is the **opposite** of perfect competition.

It is a market where **only one seller** exists, and this seller controls the entire supply. Because of this, the monopolist has **full control over price**.

(1) Single Seller

- Monopoly has only one seller but many buyers.
- The monopolist is the **entire industry**.

(2) No Close Substitutes

- The product sold has **no close substitute**.
- Buyers must buy from the monopolist only.
- Example: Indian Railways (in long-distance bulk travel).

(3) Price Maker

- The monopolist has the power to **fix the price**.
- He can increase or decrease price according to his wish because no competition exists.

(4) Restricted Entry

- New firms cannot freely enter the market because of:
 - legal restrictions
 - patents
 - high investment
 - control over key resources
- This protects the monopoly position.

(5) Price Discrimination

- The monopolist can charge **different prices** to different customers for the same product.
- Example: movie ticket prices, airline tickets.

(6) Downward Sloping Demand Curve

- Since the monopolist is the only seller, he faces the market demand curve.
- If he wants to sell more, he must reduce the price.

(7) Advertisement May Be Used

- Although monopoly has no competition, it may still advertise to:
 - increase demand
 - build brand image
 - inform customers about product uses

Q.3 (a) Explain about different types of money.

Money is anything that is **widely accepted** as a medium of exchange while buying and selling goods and services. Over time, money has changed in form, material, and usage. Different types of money exist in an economy based on how they are issued, what they are made of, and how people use them. Below are the major types of money explained in simple, clear, and long form.

1. Commodity Money

- Commodity money refers to money that has **value of its own**, even if it is not used as money.
- The item itself is valuable because it can be used for something else.
- Examples include: gold, silver, copper, grains, salt, animals, etc.

- Historically, people used gold coins and silver coins as money.
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2. Metallic Money

- Metallic money includes coins made from metals like **gold, silver, copper, nickel, aluminium**, etc.
 - These coins are issued by the government and have a fixed value.
 - They are durable and can be easily carried.
 - Today, we use coins of ₹1, ₹2, ₹5, ₹10 as metallic money.
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3. Paper Money

- Paper money refers to **currency notes** issued by the central bank (RBI in India).
 - These notes themselves have very little value, but they are accepted because the government guarantees their value.
 - Examples: ₹10, ₹20, ₹50, ₹100, ₹200, ₹500, ₹2000 notes.
 - Paper money is easy to handle and store.
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4. Credit Money

- Credit money is money that is created through **credit** and **promises to pay later**.
 - It is not actual cash but is used like money in transactions.
 - Examples: bank deposits, loans, cheques, bills of exchange.
 - When you swipe a debit or credit card, you are using credit money.
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5. Bank Money / Deposit Money

- Bank money refers to the money deposited in bank accounts.
 - It can be transferred using cheques, online banking, debit cards, UPI, etc.
 - When people deposit cash in banks, banks keep a part and use the rest to create new money through lending.
 - This increases the money supply in the economy..
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6. Digital / Electronic Money

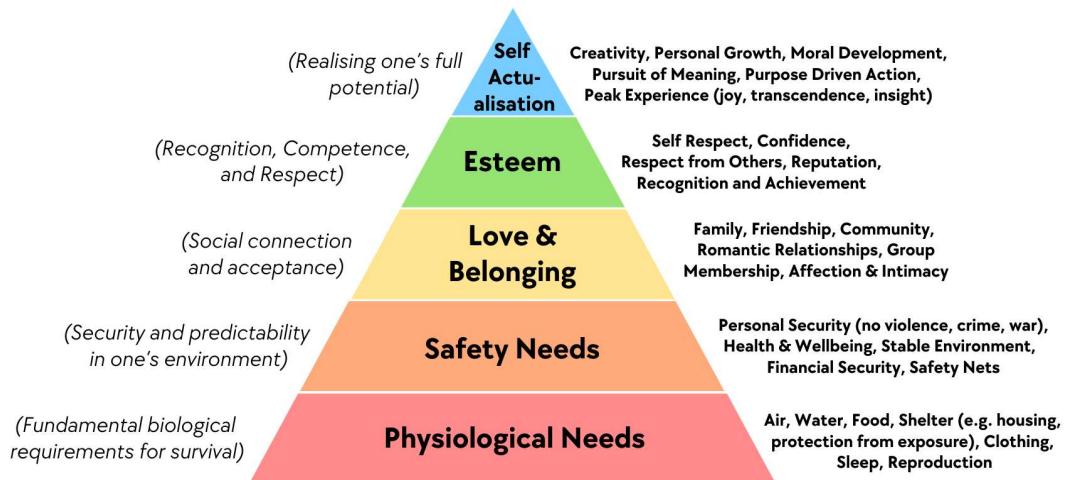
- Digital money refers to money stored electronically in apps or bank accounts.
- Examples: UPI, Paytm, Google Pay, PhonePe, net banking.
- It allows quick and convenient transactions without using cash.

- Digital money is becoming more popular in modern economies.
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7. Plastic Money

- Plastic money includes cards made of plastic used for transactions.
- Examples: debit cards, credit cards, prepaid cards, ATM cards.
- They make payment easy, safe, and cashless.

(b) Explain Abraham Maslow's theory of human needs.



1. Physiological Needs (Basic Survival Needs)

(Bottom Level of the Pyramid)

These are the **fundamental needs** required for a person to stay alive.
If these are not met, a person cannot focus on any other needs.

Includes:

- Air, water, food
- Sleep and rest
- Clothing
- Shelter or protection from environment
- Reproduction (continuity of life)

Explanation:

These are the most urgent needs. For example, a hungry person will first look for food, not education or respect.

2. Safety Needs (Security and Protection)

(Second Level)

Once physiological needs are fulfilled, people want to feel **safe and secure** in their surroundings.

Includes:

- Personal security (protection from crime, violence, war, etc.)
- Job and financial security
- Health and well-being
- Stable environment
- Safety nets (insurance, savings)

Explanation:

Employees expect job stability and a safe workplace. Children need a safe home. Safety helps a person feel confident in life.

3. Love and Belonging Needs (Social Needs)

(Third Level)

After a person feels safe, they want **love, connection, and acceptance** from others.

Includes:

- Family relationships
- Friendship
- Romantic relationships
- Community and group membership
- Affection and intimacy

Explanation:

Humans naturally want to be part of a group, feel cared for, and develop emotional bonds. Lack of social connection causes loneliness and stress.

4. Esteem Needs (Respect and Recognition)

(Fourth Level)

When social needs are met, people look for **self-respect** and **respect from others**.

Includes:

- Confidence
- Achievement
- Recognition from others
- Reputation and status
- Feeling valued in society
- Competence (being good at something)

Explanation:

People want to feel important and appreciated.

For example: rewards, promotions, awards, good reputation, and praise increase esteem.

5. Self-Actualisation Needs (Highest Level)

(Top of the Pyramid)

This is the highest human need. It is about **realising one's full potential** and becoming the best version of oneself.

Includes:

- Personal growth and development
- Creativity and innovation
- Purpose-driven life
- Morality, values, and deep meaning
- Peak experience (joy, insight, fulfilment)
- Using your full talents and abilities

Explanation:

Not everyone reaches this stage.

It includes things like becoming an artist, helping society, inventing something, or fulfilling your dreams.

(c) Explain different types of Banks in India.

Banks in India play a very important role in the economic system. They help people save money, provide loans, support business activities, and promote economic development. The Indian banking system is divided into many types of banks based on their functions, area of

operation, ownership, and services.

Below are the major types of banks explained in simple and detailed form.

1. Central Bank – Reserve Bank of India (RBI)

- RBI is the **central bank** of India.
 - It controls and manages the entire banking system.
 - Key functions include issuing currency, controlling credit, maintaining financial stability, and managing foreign exchange.
 - It is also known as the **banker to the government** and **banker to all banks**.
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2. Commercial Banks

Commercial banks are the most common type of banks people use for daily transactions. They accept deposits, give loans, and provide many financial services.

Types of Commercial Banks:

a) Public Sector Banks

- These banks are owned by the Government of India.
- Examples: SBI, Bank of Baroda, Punjab National Bank, Canara Bank.
- They serve the general public and have large networks.

b) Private Sector Banks

- These banks are owned by private companies or individuals.
- Examples: HDFC Bank, ICICI Bank, Axis Bank, Kotak Mahindra Bank.
- They provide modern services and fast customer support.

c) Foreign Banks

- Banks that come from other countries and operate in India.
 - Examples: HSBC, Citibank, Standard Chartered.
 - They mainly serve corporate and high-income customers.
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3. Cooperative Banks

- These banks are operated and owned by members of a cooperative society.
- They mainly serve rural areas, small farmers, and small businesses.
- They offer loans for farming, agriculture, and small industries.
- Examples: Urban Cooperative Banks, State Cooperative Banks, District Cooperative Banks.

4. Regional Rural Banks (RRBs)

- These banks were created to support **rural areas**, especially farmers and small entrepreneurs.
 - They provide loans for agriculture, livestock, small shops, and rural development activities.
 - They are jointly owned by the Central Government, State Government, and a sponsoring public sector bank.
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5. Development Banks

These are specialized banks created to support **industrial and economic development**.

Examples:

- IDBI (Industrial Development Bank of India)
- IFCI (Industrial Finance Corporation of India)
- SIDBI (Small Industries Development Bank of India)
- NABARD (National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development)

Functions:

- Provide long-term loans for industries.
 - Support agriculture, small businesses, and rural development.
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6. Payment Banks

- These are new-generation banks introduced to increase financial inclusion.
 - They cannot give loans but can accept deposits up to ₹2 lakh.
 - Examples: Paytm Payments Bank, Airtel Payments Bank, India Post Payments Bank.
 - They provide mobile-based banking and digital payments.
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7. Small Finance Banks

- These banks mainly focus on small businesses, small farmers, and low-income groups.
- They offer savings accounts, fixed deposits, and also give loans.
- Examples: AU Small Finance Bank, Ujjivan Small Finance Bank, Jana Small Finance Bank.

8. Specialized Banks

These banks perform very specific functions.

Examples:

- **EXIM Bank** – supports import and export activities.
 - **NABARD** – supports agriculture and rural development.
 - **SIDBI** – supports small industries.
 - **Housing Finance Banks** – provide loans for houses and real estate.
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OR

(a) Enlist causes of inflation.

Causes of Inflation

1. **Demand-Pull Inflation** – When demand for goods becomes higher than supply, prices rise.
2. **Cost-Push Inflation** – Increase in production cost makes producers raise prices.
3. **Increase in Money Supply** – More money in the economy increases demand and leads to higher prices.
4. **Government Spending** – Heavy government expenditure increases overall demand and causes inflation.
5. **Population Growth** – More population increases demand for essential goods, pushing prices upward.
6. **Hoarding and Black Marketing** – Artificial scarcity created by traders increases prices.
7. **Imported Inflation** – Increase in prices of imported goods (like oil) raises domestic prices.
8. **High Taxes** – Higher GST or excise duty directly raises the price of goods and services.
9. **Supply Shortages** – Natural disasters, strikes, or transport problems reduce supply, leading to inflation.
10. **Rise in Wages** – Higher salaries increase production cost, resulting in higher product prices.

(b) What are the causes and remedies of unemployment?

Causes of Unemployment

1. Population Growth

- Rapid increase in population creates more job seekers than available jobs.

2. Slow Industrial Growth

- Industries are not expanding fast enough to absorb the growing workforce.

3. Seasonal Nature of Jobs

- Agriculture and some industries provide work only during certain seasons, causing seasonal unemployment.

4. Lack of Skill and Education

- Many people do not have proper training or modern skills, making them unemployable in growing sectors.

5. Use of Modern Technology

- Automation and machines reduce the need for human labour, increasing unemployment.

6. Economic Slowdown

- When the economy faces recession, many companies stop hiring or even lay off workers.

7. Regional Imbalance

- Jobs are concentrated in urban/industrial areas, while rural areas face a shortage of opportunities.

8. Poor Infrastructure

- Lack of transport, electricity, and basic facilities discourage companies from setting up industries.

9. Corruption and Weak Planning

- Poor implementation of economic policies and corruption slow down job creation.

10. Social Factors

- Cultural restrictions, caste issues, and preference for white-collar jobs also reduce employment opportunities.
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Remedies of Unemployment

1. Encouraging Industrialization

- Setting up new industries creates large-scale employment opportunities.

2. Promoting Skill Development

- Vocational training, technical education, and government skill programs can make youth job-ready.

3. Support to Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs)

- Providing loans, subsidies, and training helps small businesses grow and hire more workers.

4. Agricultural Reforms

- Irrigation, storage, and modern farming techniques can reduce seasonal unemployment.

5. Government Employment Programs

- Schemes like MGNREGA create guaranteed jobs for rural people.

6. Encouraging Self-employment

- Providing loans, training, and startup support motivates people to start their own businesses.

7. Improving Infrastructure

- Better roads, electricity, and transport attract industries and create employment opportunities.

8. Control on Population Growth

- Awareness and family planning help reduce pressure on job markets.

9. Promotion of Entrepreneurship

- Startup policies, incubators, and innovation hubs encourage new ventures and new jobs.

10. Foreign Investment (FDI)

- Encouraging foreign companies to invest in India increases job opportunities across sectors.

(c) Explain in detail about various methods of computing national income

National Income means the **total value of all final goods and services produced within a country in one year**.

Economists use three main methods to calculate national income:

1. Output / Production Method

This method measures national income by **adding the value of all final goods and services produced** in the country during a year.

Steps

- Identify all productive sectors (agriculture, industry, services, etc.)
- Calculate the **gross value of output** of each sector
- Subtract **intermediate consumption** (raw materials, electricity, fuel, etc.)
- The result is **Net Value Added at Factor Cost (NVAFC)**
- Add all sectoral NVAs to get **National Income**

Formula

$$\text{National Income} = \Sigma (\text{Value of Output} - \text{Intermediate Consumption})$$

Advantages

- Suitable for countries with good production data (like industries).
- Shows which sectors contribute the most to GDP.

Limitations

- Hard to calculate services like housewives' work or illegal activities.

2. Income Method

This method adds up all **incomes earned by individuals and firms** in a country.

Components Included

- **Wages & Salaries** (employees' income)
- **Rent** (income from land/property)
- **Interest** (income from capital)
- **Profits** (income of entrepreneurs)
- **Mixed income** (doctors, lawyers, shop owners, etc.)

Formula

$$\text{National Income} = \text{Rent} + \text{Wages} + \text{Interest} + \text{Profit} + \text{Mixed Income}$$

Steps

- Collect data on all factor incomes
- Exclude **transfer payments** such as pensions, gifts, and scholarships
- Exclude **income from illegal activities**

Advantages

- Very accurate where income records are strong.

Limitations

- Difficult to get reliable data in unorganized sectors and agriculture.
-

3. Expenditure Method

This method calculates national income by **adding all expenditures** made during a year.

Major Components

1. **C (Consumption Expenditure)**
 - Household spending on goods and services.
2. **I (Investment Expenditure)**
 - Business spending on machines, buildings, tools, etc.
3. **G (Government Expenditure)**
 - Government spending on defence, roads, education, healthcare etc.
4. **NX (Net Exports)**
 - Exports – Imports
(Add exports because they are produced inside the country; subtract imports.)

Formula

$$\text{National Income} = \text{C} + \text{I} + \text{G} + (\text{X} - \text{M})$$

Steps

- Collect expenditure data from households, firms, and government
- Add investment and export values
- Deduct import spending

Advantages

- Very useful for analyzing consumption patterns
- Best method for developed nations with good expenditure records.

Limitations

- Hard to calculate expenditure of rural households accurately.
-

4. (Optional) Value Added Method (used in India)

This is actually part of the **output method**, but often shown separately.

Steps

- Find value added at each stage of production
 - Add all **value added** to get GDP
 - Subtract depreciation
 - Add net income from abroad
 - Get **National Income (NNP at Factor Cost)**
-

5. Cross-Checking of the Three Methods

Although the three methods look different, in theory:

$$\text{Output} = \text{Income} = \text{Expenditure}$$

Because:

- What is **produced** is **sold**
- What is sold becomes **income** for someone
- That income becomes **expenditure** for buying goods/services

So all three methods must give the **same national income**, but in practice small differences exist due to errors in data.

Q.4 (a) ‘Good planning is half work done.’ Explain.

The statement means that **when planning is done properly at the beginning, most of the work becomes easier, faster, and more accurate**. Good planning gives a clear direction, removes confusion, and reduces mistakes, so a major part of the work is already achieved even before actual action starts.

1. Planning sets a clear goal

Good planning helps us clearly understand **what has to be done, why it has to be done, and how it will be done**.

When the goal is clear, half the confusion disappears, and the team works smoothly.

2. Planning reduces mistakes and wastage

If the work is started without a plan, people may do wrong steps, repeat tasks, or waste time and money.

Good planning studies the future, identifies problems, and provides solutions in advance. This reduces errors, so half the problems are already solved before starting.

3. Planning saves time and effort

A planned task has a **proper sequence**, deadlines, and responsibilities. Because of this, work flows continuously without unnecessary delays. Thus, good planning does half the job by saving a lot of effort.

4. Planning improves coordination

When everyone knows **their role, responsibilities, and timing**, coordination becomes easy. People do not interfere in each other's work, and tasks are completed faster. This smooth teamwork completes a large part of the work indirectly.

5. Planning prepares us for future challenges

Good planning includes **forecasting risks**, such as financial issues, shortage of resources, time pressure, etc.

By preparing solutions earlier, we avoid last-minute problems. So, the difficult part is already handled in the planning stage.

(b) Discuss 4 P's of Marketing.

The **4 P's of Marketing** are the four major elements that every business uses to market its product successfully. They are **Product, Price, Place, and Promotion**. These four elements help a company understand what to sell, how much to charge, where to sell, and how to attract customers.

1. Product

- A product is anything that a company offers to satisfy customer needs — goods, services, ideas, or experiences.
 - It includes **design, features, brand name, quality, packaging, and after-sales services**.
 - A company must ensure the product solves a real problem and offers value to customers.
 - Example: A smartphone company decides features like camera quality, battery life, display, brand, and warranty.
-

2. Price

- Price is the **amount of money customers pay** to purchase the product.
 - It is one of the most important marketing decisions because it directly affects profit and customer demand.
 - Pricing must consider factors like **cost of production, competitor prices, customer income level, and market demand**.
 - Example: Offering lower price to enter the market (penetration pricing) or charging high price for premium products (premium pricing).
-

3. Place

- Place refers to **where and how the product is made available to customers**.
 - It focuses on distribution channels like wholesalers, retailers, online stores, company outlets, and direct selling.
 - A good place strategy ensures the product reaches the customer **at the right time, right location, and in the right quantity**.
 - Example: Amazon uses warehouses, delivery partners, and online platforms to reach customers everywhere.
-

4. Promotion

- Promotion includes all activities a company uses to **inform, persuade, and remind customers** about the product.
- It covers **advertising, sales promotions, social media marketing, public relations, personal selling, and discounts**.
- Effective promotion helps create brand awareness and encourages people to buy the product.
- Example: TV ads, Instagram ads, festival offers, posters, influencer marketing, etc.

(c) Discuss organization structure of any manufacturing industry.

A **manufacturing industry** converts raw materials into finished goods using machines, labour, and technology.

To run efficiently, it follows a **clear organizational structure** that divides work among different departments and defines authority and responsibility.

Below is a common organizational structure used in most manufacturing companies:

★ 1. Top Management

(a) Board of Directors / Owners

- They are the highest authority and take major decisions about the company's future.
- They decide long-term goals, investments, expansion plans, and policies.

(b) Managing Director (MD) / CEO

- Responsible for overall performance of the company.
 - Coordinates all departments and ensures goals are achieved.
 - Provides direction, leadership, and control.
-

★ 2. Middle Management

These managers convert company goals into practical plans.
They supervise departments and report to top management.

(i) Production Department

- The heart of a manufacturing company.
 - Responsible for making the product.
 - Handles planning, scheduling, controlling, and maintaining production lines.
 - Sub-sections include:
 - **Assembly**
 - **Processing**
 - **Quality Control**
 - **Maintenance**
-

(ii) Purchase Department

- Buys raw materials, machines, tools, and equipment.
 - Maintains relationship with suppliers and negotiates prices.
 - Ensures all required materials arrive on time.
-

(iii) Sales & Marketing Department

- Promotes the product in the market.
 - Conducts market research, advertisements, and sales campaigns.
 - Handles customer orders, distribution, and after-sales service.
-

(iv) Finance & Accounts Department

- Manages money, budgeting, and financial planning.
 - Keeps records of income, expenses, salaries, and taxes.
 - Prepares balance sheets and financial reports.
-

(v) Human Resource (HR) Department

- Responsible for recruitment, training, and development of employees.
 - Looks after salary, promotions, leaves, motivation, and employee welfare.
 - Ensures good working conditions and resolves worker problems.
-

(vi) Research & Development (R&D)

- Works on new designs, improved materials, and better production technology.
 - Helps the company stay competitive.
 - Focuses on innovation and product improvement.
-

★ 3. Lower-Level / Supervisory Management

Includes supervisors, team leaders, foremen, and shift in-charges.

- They lead workers on the factory floor.
- Ensure daily targets are achieved.
- Maintain discipline, safety, and quality at each stage.

- Solve small operational problems immediately.
-

★ 4. Workers (Operational Level)

These include skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled workers who actually operate machines and assemble the products.

- They follow instructions from supervisors.
- Their work directly affects the quality and quantity of output.
- Include machine operators, technicians, helpers, packers, etc.

OR

Q.4 (a) Differentiate Management and Administration.

What is the difference between management and administration?

Answer:

Difference between Administration and Management

There are many factors according to which administration can be distinguished from management. These are as follows:

	Administration	Management
Nature of work	It is concerned about the determination of objectives and major policies of an organization.	It puts into action the policies and plans laid down by the administration.
Type of function	It is a determinative function.	It is an executive function.
Scope	It takes major decisions of an enterprise as a whole.	It takes decisions within the framework set by the administration.
Level of authority	It is a top-level activity.	It is a middle level activity.
Nature of status	It consists of owners who invest capital in and receive profits from an enterprise.	It is a group of managerial personnel who use their specialized knowledge to fulfill the objectives of an enterprise.
Nature of usage	It is popular with government, military, educational, and religious organizations.	It is used in business enterprises.
Decision making	Its decisions are influenced by public opinion, government policies, social, and religious factors.	Its decisions are influenced by the values, opinions, and beliefs of the managers.
Main functions	Planning and organizing	Motivating and controlling

(c) Explain importance of staffing in detail.

Staffing is an important function of management that deals with **hiring the right people, placing them in the right jobs, and developing their skills**. Every organization needs good

employees to achieve its goals, and staffing ensures that the organization gets and keeps the best talent.

★ 1. Ensures Right Person for the Right Job

- Staffing helps identify the exact skills required for each job.
 - It selects candidates whose abilities match the job needs.
 - When the right person is placed in the right role, work becomes faster, better, and more efficient.
-

★ 2. Improves Productivity of the Organization

- Skilled and trained employees perform tasks more accurately and quickly.
 - This improves the overall productivity and efficiency of the organization.
 - Good staffing reduces errors, delays, and wastage.
-

★ 3. Helps in Employee Development

- Staffing includes training and development programs which improve employee skills.
 - It prepares employees for higher positions and future responsibilities.
 - This increases confidence and job satisfaction.
-

★ 4. Reduces Employee Turnover

- When employees feel valued and placed in suitable jobs, they stay longer.
 - Staffing ensures fair recruitment, proper wages, and growth opportunities.
 - This reduces absenteeism and the cost of hiring again and again.
-

★ 5. Builds a Strong Team and Good Work Culture

- Staffing brings people who fit the organization's culture and values.
 - It helps build teamwork by selecting employees who work well with others.
 - A strong team increases cooperation, trust, and positive work environment.
-

★ 6. Supports Organizational Growth and Expansion

- When companies grow, they need more employees with special skills.
 - Staffing ensures that trained manpower is available at the right time.
 - Without proper staffing, the company cannot expand successfully.
-

★ 7. Helps in Effective Management

- Managers depend on employees for completing tasks.
 - Proper staffing ensures managers have reliable people to whom they can delegate work.
 - This reduces the workload of managers and makes management smoother.
-

★ 8. Improves Quality of Products and Services

- Qualified and trained employees do better work, handle machines correctly, and follow quality standards.
 - This leads to better products, satisfied customers, and stronger brand reputation.
-

(d) What is CSR? Explain its importance.

CSR (Corporate Social Responsibility) means the responsibility of a business towards society.

It is the idea that companies should **not only focus on profit**, but also take care of

- people,
- environment,
- community, and
- ethical practices.

CSR includes activities like helping the poor, protecting nature, supporting education, building hospitals, reducing pollution, etc.

It shows that a company cares about society and wants to give back.

✓ Importance of CSR

1. Improves Company's Image and Reputation

- When a company does social work, people trust it more.
 - It builds a positive image in the market and attracts customers.
-

2. Builds Strong Customer Loyalty

- Customers prefer buying from companies that are socially responsible.
 - CSR activities make customers feel the company cares, increasing long-term loyalty.
-

3. Helps in Employee Motivation and Retention

- Employees feel proud to work in a company that helps society.
 - It improves morale, reduces employee turnover, and increases productivity.
-

4. Helps in Environmental Protection

- Companies adopting CSR reduce pollution, save energy, recycle waste, and use eco-friendly materials.
 - This protects the environment and ensures sustainable development.
-

5. Contributes to Community Development

- CSR supports education, health programs, rural development, water supply, and social welfare activities.
 - It improves the quality of life of people in the community.
-

6. Helps the Company Follow Legal Requirements

- In India, companies above a certain profit level **must spend 2% of net profits** on CSR activities.
 - Good CSR ensures the company follows the law and avoids penalties.
-

7. Increases Investor Confidence

- Investors prefer companies that are ethical and responsible.
- Strong CSR attracts more investment because it shows stability and good values.

8. Reduces Business Risk

- Companies that behave responsibly face fewer complaints, protests, legal cases, or government pressure.
 - CSR builds goodwill which protects the company during difficult times.
-

9. Supports Long-Term Success of the Business

- CSR helps build strong relationships with society, employees, government, and customers.
 - This support helps the business grow smoothly and safely in the long run.
-

10. Encourages Ethical Behaviour

- CSR promotes honesty, fairness, transparency, and responsible behaviour.
- It helps in building a culture of values inside the organization.

Q.5 (a) What is the importance of Human Resource Management?

Importance of HRM

1. Helps in Hiring the Right People

- HRM recruits people who have the required skills, knowledge, and attitude.
 - It selects the most suitable candidates to fill different jobs in the company.
 - Right hiring improves work quality and reduces future problems.
-

2. Provides Training and Development

- HRM gives training to new and existing employees so they can work better.
 - It also conducts development programs to prepare employees for higher roles.
 - This increases productivity and builds a strong workforce.
-

3. Improves Employee Motivation

- HRM uses incentives, rewards, recognition, and performance appraisals to keep employees motivated.
 - Motivated employees work with more energy, creativity, and responsibility.
-

4. Ensures Good Working Conditions

- HRM provides safe, healthy, and comfortable working environments.
 - It ensures proper facilities, safety measures, and welfare activities.
 - This boosts employee satisfaction and reduces absenteeism.
-

5. Maintains Good Employer–Employee Relations

- HRM handles employee grievances, solves conflicts, and ensures smooth communication.
- Good relations lead to teamwork, trust, and stability in the organization.

6. Helps in Performance Management

- HRM evaluates employee performance regularly and gives feedback.
- It identifies strong performers and helps weaker ones improve.
- This improves overall organizational efficiency.

(b) Write a short note on hybrid organization.

A **Hybrid Organization** is a type of organizational structure that combines the features of **two or more** traditional structures—such as **functional**, **divisional**, and **matrix**—to get the benefits of each and reduce their limitations.

It allows the company to use different structures for different parts of the business, depending on what works best.

Key Features

- It mixes **functional structure** (departments like HR, Finance, Marketing) with **product or project-based structure** (separate divisions for different products or regions).
- Employees may report to **both a functional manager and a divisional/project manager**.
- The organization becomes more flexible and can handle **different markets, products, and technologies** at the same time.

Why Hybrid Structure is Used?

- Large companies operate in many markets and make many products, so one single structure cannot fit everything.
 - Hybrid structure allows each division to work in the most effective way for its own needs.
 - It improves teamwork, quick decision-making, and specialization.
-

Advantages

- Better coordination among departments and product teams.
 - Flexibility to adapt to changes in market and technology.
 - Encourages innovation and efficient use of resources.
 - Different products/divisions get more attention and clear supervision.
-

Disadvantages

- Dual reporting can sometimes create confusion for employees.
 - Decision-making may become slow if many managers are involved.
 - Requires highly skilled managers to coordinate different structures.
-

Examples

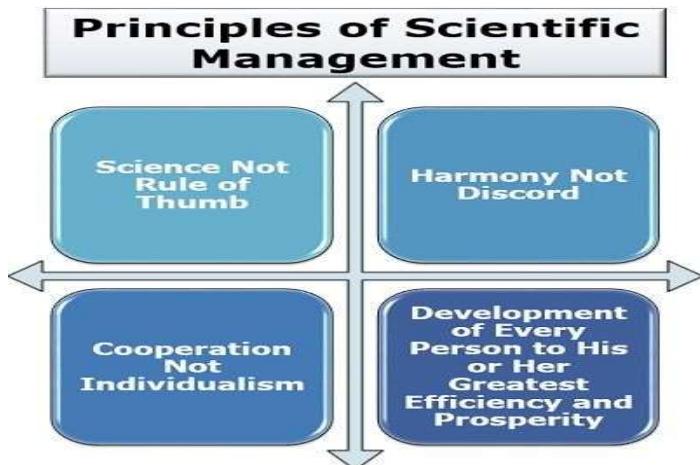
- A car company uses **functional departments** (HR, Finance, R&D) but also has **product divisions** (SUV, Sedan, Electric Cars).
- A tech company uses functional teams (IT, Marketing, Sales) but runs separate **project teams** for different clients.

(c) Discuss principles of Scientific Management.

Scientific Management was introduced by **Frederick Winslow Taylor**.

Its main aim is to improve efficiency, reduce waste, and increase productivity by using a **scientific approach** instead of guesswork.

Taylor believed that every job has **one best method**, and this method should be found scientifically.



Below are the **main principles** explained in easy and detailed form:

★ 1. Science, Not Rule of Thumb

- Earlier, workers followed traditional methods based on experience or guesswork.
 - Taylor says every job should be studied scientifically: time study, motion study, standard tools, and the best working method.
 - This increases speed, reduces mistakes, and ensures uniform quality in work.
-

★ 2. Harmony, Not Discord

- There should be **no conflict** between workers and management.
 - Both should cooperate and work like a team instead of blaming each other.
 - Taylor suggested fair wages, good communication, and solving problems together to create harmony.
-

★ 3. Cooperation, Not Individualism

- Management should support workers by providing training, tools, and proper working conditions.
 - Workers should follow scientific methods and cooperate with supervisors.
 - Mutual cooperation leads to higher efficiency and better performance.
-

★ 4. Development of Each Worker to His/Her Full Potential

- Taylor believed that every worker should be selected scientifically and then trained properly.
 - Workers should be placed in jobs that match their skills.
 - Continuous training helps workers improve, get promotions, and increase confidence.
-

★ 5. Division of Work and Responsibility

- Management should do the planning and scientific analysis of work.
 - Workers should focus on doing the job efficiently according to the plan.
 - This clear separation avoids confusion and increases productivity.
-

★ 6. Standardization of Work

- Standard tools, machines, methods, and work processes should be fixed.
 - Standard time, standard output, and standard materials ensure uniformity.
 - It reduces waste, saves time, and gives consistent quality.
-

★ 7. Differential Piece Wage System

- Workers should be paid based on their performance.
 - High performers get higher wages, and low performers get lower wages.
 - This motivates employees to work fast and follow scientific methods.
-

Conclusion

Taylor's principles of Scientific Management focus on **systematic study of work, cooperation, training, standardization, and fair wages**.

These principles help increase efficiency, reduce cost, improve quality, and create a disciplined and productive workplace.

OR

Q.5 (a) Discuss the objectives of fiscal policy.

Objectives of Fiscal Policy:

Fiscal policy is the use of government revenue (taxation) and expenditure (spending) to influence the economy. Its main objectives are:

1. **Economic Stability:** To control inflation and deflation by regulating demand in the economy, ensuring stable prices.
2. **Economic Growth:** To encourage production, investment, and industrial development through public spending and incentives.
3. **Full Employment:** To reduce unemployment by generating jobs directly (through government projects) or indirectly (stimulating private sector).
4. **Redistribution of Income:** To reduce inequalities by imposing progressive taxes on the rich and providing subsidies or welfare benefits to the poor.
5. **Balance of Payments Stability:** To manage imports, exports, and foreign trade through fiscal measures, ensuring a stable external sector.
6. **Resource Mobilization:** To raise necessary funds for public services, infrastructure, and development projects.

Fiscal policy thus aims to achieve a **balanced and sustainable economic growth** while ensuring social welfare

(b) Describe roles of managers.

Managers are important in any organization because they guide people and resources to achieve the goals of the organization. Their roles can be divided into **three main types: interpersonal, informational, and decisional roles.**

1. **Interpersonal Roles:**

These roles involve interacting with people both inside and outside the organization.

- **Figurehead:** Representing the organization in ceremonies, meetings, and official functions.
- **Leader:** Guiding, motivating, and managing the team to achieve organizational goals.
- **Liaison:** Establishing and maintaining relationships with external contacts like suppliers, customers, and other organizations.

2. **Informational Roles:**

Managers are responsible for collecting, processing, and disseminating information.

- **Monitor:** Observing internal and external environments to identify changes, trends, and problems.
- **Disseminator:** Sharing important information with team members to aid decision-making.

- **Spokesperson:** Representing the organization by communicating information to outsiders.
- 3. Decisional Roles:**
- Managers make decisions that affect the organization's direction and performance.
- **Entrepreneur:** Initiating new projects, innovations, and improvements within the organization.
 - **Disturbance Handler:** Resolving conflicts and crises that may arise internally or externally.
 - **Resource Allocator:** Deciding how resources (money, time, personnel) will be distributed for tasks and projects.
 - **Negotiator:** Engaging in negotiations with other parties like clients, suppliers, or employees to reach beneficial agreements.

Additional Points:

- Managers coordinate activities, ensure smooth workflow, and maintain efficiency.
- They play a vital role in **planning, organizing, directing, and controlling** the organization's resources.
- Effective managers help the organization achieve its **goals, maintain morale, and adapt to changing environments.**

(c) Explain in brief Poverty (causes, types, and measure to eradicate).

Poverty

Poverty is a condition in which people are unable to meet their basic needs for a decent life. These basic needs include food, clothing, shelter, education, and healthcare. People living in poverty often face social, economic, and political disadvantages that prevent them from improving their standard of living. Poverty is a major issue in both developing and developed countries as it affects economic growth, social stability, and overall quality of life.

1. Causes of Poverty:

Poverty arises due to a combination of economic, social, and environmental factors:

- **Unemployment and Underemployment:** Many people do not get proper jobs or have only temporary work. This reduces their ability to earn a stable income.
- **Low Income and Wages:** Even when people are employed, low wages prevent them from meeting basic living standards.
- **Illiteracy and Lack of Education:** Without proper education and skills, people cannot access better jobs or opportunities, keeping them trapped in poverty.
- **Overpopulation:** Rapid population growth increases pressure on resources such as food, land, and employment opportunities, reducing per capita income.
- **Unequal Distribution of Wealth:** Wealth is often concentrated among a few, leaving a large number of people poor.

- **Natural Disasters:** Events like floods, droughts, earthquakes, and famines destroy homes, crops, and income sources, pushing people into poverty.
 - **Social and Cultural Factors:** Discrimination based on caste, gender, religion, or ethnicity limits access to education, employment, and social services.
 - **Poor Health and Malnutrition:** Weak health reduces work efficiency and productivity, leading to loss of income and continued poverty.
 - **Economic Instability:** Inflation, recession, and economic mismanagement can reduce employment and increase poverty.
-

2. Types of Poverty:

Poverty can take several forms based on its intensity, duration, and location:

- **Absolute Poverty:** When people cannot afford even the minimum necessities like food, clothing, and shelter.
 - **Relative Poverty:** When people earn less than the average standard of living in society, making it difficult to participate in social and economic life.
 - **Urban Poverty:** Poverty experienced in cities due to high living costs, unemployment, and lack of affordable housing.
 - **Rural Poverty:** Poverty in villages caused by low agricultural productivity, poor infrastructure, lack of irrigation, and limited access to education and healthcare.
 - **Chronic Poverty:** Long-term poverty caused by structural issues such as unemployment, inequality, or lack of resources.
 - **Situational Poverty:** Temporary poverty due to sudden events like natural disasters, illness, loss of job, or financial crisis.
-

3. Measures to Eradicate Poverty:

Several measures are necessary to reduce poverty and improve living standards:

- **Education and Skill Development:** Providing free and quality education along with vocational training helps people get better jobs and higher incomes.
- **Employment Generation:** Creating job opportunities through industrialization, small businesses, self-employment schemes, and government programs reduces poverty.
- **Social Welfare Programs:** Subsidies, food distribution, housing schemes, healthcare, and pensions help poor people meet their basic needs.
- **Land Reforms:** Providing fair land distribution in rural areas empowers farmers and increases agricultural productivity.
- **Economic Growth:** Promoting industries, trade, infrastructure development, and technology creates more opportunities and raises incomes.
- **Population Control:** Family planning programs reduce the strain on resources and income per person.
- **Healthcare and Nutrition:** Access to hospitals, health programs, and nutritious food improves productivity and reduces poverty caused by illness.
- **Empowering Marginalized Groups:** Special support for women, minorities, and socially disadvantaged groups ensures equality and reduces social poverty.

- **Microfinance and Financial Inclusion:** Providing small loans and access to banking helps poor people start businesses and become self-reliant.
- **Government Policies and Schemes:** Implementation of effective poverty alleviation programs like rural employment schemes, subsidized food, and housing projects.